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SCORPION NOMENCLATURE AND MENSURATION¹

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One of our serious academic problems is the increasing break-down in inter-disciplinary communication. As disciplinary splintering occurs the jargon increases and the house of academia is becoming more and more like the proverbial Tower of Babel.

Systematists of the order Scorpionida are not only guilty of this type of deviation but, with an increasing interest in the area, scorpiologists and parascorpiologists are creating a Tower of Babel of their own. In order to coordinate scorpion nomenclature within the order and with that of other areas of arthropodology, the basic terminology of Snodgrass (1952) is recommended. Since this would not include all structures important in scorpion systematics other terms used currently are presented together with nomenclature for structures heretofore referred to in sometimes vague, generalized terms. The general structures are illustrated in Figures 1 and 2³. In order to assist the novice in interpreting some of the older, as well as some of the current literature, a comparative nomenclatural, columnar table is presented. English synonyms or other equivalents are indicated in parentheses in column two. Equivalents in French, German, and Spanish are given in columns 3-5 respectively. The French nomenclature is almost entirely that of Vachon (1952); the German, primarily after Kraepelin (1899) and Werner (1935); the Spanish after Hoffman (1931, 1932). The author gratefully acknowledges the assistance of M. deVerde in completing the Spanish equivalents.

Procedures in mensuration are given for two reasons. First, the large numbers of heavily sclerotized structures make possible the obtaining of

¹Accepted for publication: November 28, 1970.

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³All label numbers are in reference to those in the "code number" column of Table 1.

accurate quantitative data. Second, quantitative data can present a more precise concept of genetic relationships while pointing up sexual dimorphism and revealing allometric development. The latter type of information is extremely important.

The scorpion body divisions can be thought of in various ways (Figs. 1 and 2). The anterior broad portion, including the unsegmented carapace and the following seven segments, is referred to as the **trunk** and the following six segments as the **tail** or **cauda**. The trunk consists of the **cephalothorax** and the **preabdomen** while the cauda is composed of five **postabdominal** segments plus the sting bearing **telson**.

The cephalothorax is also called the **prosoma** while the rest of the body, i.e., the pre- and postabdomen plus the telson, is called the **opisthosoma**. This "hind portion" of the animal is further divided into the **mesosoma** (preabdomen) and the **metasoma** (postabdomen plus telson or cauda).

The **carapace**, an unsegmented sclerotized plate covering the cephalothorax, is a very revealing structure in systematics. Its general contour, the



Figure 1. Dorsal aspect of generalized scorpion. (See Table 1 code numbers for label numbers.

surface features, as well as the size and spatial relationships of the median and lateral eyes are helpful. The nature of the anterior margin, whether it is concave, straight, or convex is significant. The ratio of the anterior width, to the median or posterior width can be important as well as the anterior-posterior divergence.

The following carapacial measurements are important since this structure is not generally subject to allometric development:

1. Length Distance between the anterior and posterior margins along the longitudinal axis. If either margin is lobed, the measurements are made from a line tangent to those lobes. All measurements are made with an ocular, metric reticle.

2. Anterior width The distance between the exterior margins of the first pair of lateral eyes (Fig. 3).

3. Median width Lateral margin to margin distance at level of anterior margin of median eyes.

4. Posterior width Greatest lateral margin to margin distance in posterior portion of carapace. In dried or poorly preserved specimens this measurement may not always be reliable due to a tendency of this carapacial curvature to change its arc.

5. First lateral eyes to median eyes Distance between adjacent margins of these eyes.

6. Median eyes to anterior margin Distance from anterior margin, as above described, to anterior margin of median eyes.

7. Median eyes to posterior margin Distance from *anterior* margin of median eyes to posterior carapacial margin, as described above.

8. Width of median ocular tubercle The distance between the exterior margins of the median eyes.

The anterior-posterior divergence is obtained by dividing the quantity, posterior width minus anterior width, by the carapacial length.

Surface features that are important, besides the size and density of the granules or tubercles or the possible reticular or/and punctate conditions, are the nature and presence of furrows and keels. These (furrows: Nos. 16-26; keels: Nos. 28-34) are illustrated in Figure 3.

The shape of the sternum (Figs. 2 and 4 A-D) plays an important role in distinguishing the higher categories but is of little value at the generic, or lower, level. Its contour is effected somewhat by allometric development. Such variation may prove a taxonomic pitfall.

The appendages of the prosoma consist of the chelicersa (ke-liś-er-a), pedipalps and walking legs. The first mentioned consists of a basal piece and a

chela. The denticles on the superior and inferior margins of the fingers may be important; the former generally at the generic level and the inferior sometimes at both the generic and species levels. The setaceous condition is of little taxonomic value.

The pedipalps are an excellent source of taxonomic data, both subjective and quantitative. They consist of the following subdivisions: coxa, trochanter, femur, patella, and chela (pincer) which is composed of the tibia, made of the manus (hand) and its finger, and the tarsus (movable finger) (Figs. 1 and 2). Considering the chelae in their natural position it is generally possible to recognize on the manus a superior, inferior, and exterior surface (the "Hinterhand" of Kraepelin; "face ventrale" of Vachon) (Fig. 5, ExS). Various ridges (crests), or keels, may be present on these surfaces. On the superior face, generally the most prominent crest is the **digital** keel (90). This is often in the form of an elongated S and may be prolonged medially along the tibial finger and divide the superior surface into **interior** and **exterior** areas. Sometimes the digital keel is so strongly developed as to place these two areas at approximately right angles to each other. Inwardly the superior and inferior surfaces



Figure 2. Ventral aspect of generalized scorpion.

are separated by the interior marginal keel (94). Along the other extreme margin of the superior surface is the exterior marginal keel (87) which in some taxa extends diagonally distad across the exterior surfaces (Ex S). Between the digital and the two marginal keels may be found additional, or secondary keels.

Moving inwardly from the digital keel may be the sub-digital keel (Fig. 5, 91), extending distally only part way along the manus surface. Next is the inner secondary keel (92) which is sometimes a prominent keel and may extend along the inner aspect of the tibial finger. Between this keel and the interior marginal keel may be a short sub-inner secondary keel (93).

Exteriorly from the **digital** keel is found first the **exterior secondary** keel (Fig. 5, 89). At times this ridge is sufficiently developed to cause the exterior area to be equivalent in height to the digital keel and produce a subcylindrical contour of the manus. The next keel, the **secondary accessory** (88), although generally vestigial, may extend over one-half the distal portion of the manus from the superior end of the tarso-tibial articulation.

There are fewer keels on the inferior surface. An inferior digital may be recognized as well as an inferior exterior keel (Fig. 5, 100) and an inferior secondary keel. These are not often of taxonomic value.

The keels and intercarinal spaces may have surface features of considerable taxonomic value. These will be discussed later.



Figure 3. Generalized carapace. A. W.=Anterior Width.

The cutting edge of the tibial finger and tarsus may bear different shapes and patterns of granules, tubercles, denticles, and lobes. The accompanying figures illustrate two of the common patterns (Figs. 6 and 7).

The segment proximad from the tibia is the **patella**, forming the "bend" in the pedipalp. Of taxonomic importance are the state of development of its eight keels, the surface features of these keels, and the intercarinal areas.

Proximad from the patella and at about right angles to it on a resting scorpion, is the somewhat more elongate **femur**. The chela, patella, and femur simulate a U-formation. Like the patella, its keels (seven) and the formations on them



Figure 4. Sternum, genital operculum and pectines. A. Vejovis spinigerus (Wood), PL = Pecten Length; DL = Dentate margin Length. B. Bothriurus sp. C. Centruroides sculpturatus Ewing. D. Superstitionia donensis Stahnke.





Figure 6. Centuroides sculpturatus Ewing pedipalp tarsus cutting edge. Supernumerary granules (113) include all those between the larger lateral granules.

Figure 7. Hadrurus hirsutus (Wood) pedipalp tarsus cutting edge.

and in the intercarinal spaces may be of taxonomic value.

The trochanter and coxa are of little taxonomic importance.

The dimensions of the pedipalp structures and how they are obtained are given below:

1. Total length The value used is the sum total of the respective lengths of the femur, patella, and tibia. The coxal and trochanter length are omitted because of their irregular form which would lend to errors and make measurement meaningless.

2. Tibia length Shortest distance from proximal margin at point of tibiopatellar articulation, approximately through trichobothrium B_1 , to distal tip of finger. See Figure 5 (TiL).

3. Manus length From proximal margin at point of articulation (as in 2 above) to digital commissure.

4. Manus width Greatest interior to exterior marginal width.

5. Manus thickness Greatest distance between inferior and superior surfaces.

6. Exterior surface length From proximal margin of manus through trichobothrium E_5 to the line of tarso-tibial articulation.

7. Tarsus length The shortest distance from the most superior point of the tarso-tibial articulation to the most distal point of the tarsus. (See Fig. 5, TaL).

8. Patella length The length of the non-telescoping portion along the dorsal surface.

9. Patella width Greatest, basic width at mid-way between distal and proximal margins. This is not a very practical or precise measure because of unusual protuberances on the inner surface in some taxa.

10. Femur length The length of the non-telescoping portion along the dorsal surface.

11. Femur width Greatest width at distal one-third.

The walking legs consist of the coxa, trochanter, femur, patella, tibia, tarsus (consisting of tarsomere I and tarsomere II, the foot) and the pretarsus. This last segment is quite inconspicuous but bears two **lateral claws** and a **ventro-median claw**. (Fig. 8).

The legs occasionally are of taxonomic importance. For example, bristlecombs are generally found on the lateral aspect of the tarso-tibial leg segments of psammophilic species. The comparative lengths and widths of the tibia and tarsomere I of leg IV frequently are helpful taxonomic indicators; as is the total length of leg IV. This quantity would not include tarsomere II and the pre-tarsus. These structures frequently would be difficult to measure and their

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inclusion would not make the quantity more meaningful.

Some rather inconspicuous leg structures (Fig. 8) (tibial spur, pedal spur, bristles, etc. on tarsomere II and the pretarsus) have proven to be of considerable taxonomic significance. The tibial spur (124), found in the tibio-tarsal connective tissue, is present in some Buthidae but absent on others. The pedal spurs (127), located in the connective tissue between tarsomere I and II are present on all scorpions.⁴However, on some taxa there may be one present on both exterior and interior aspects while on others only an exterior spur is present. Again a spur may be forked or have 4 or 5 lateral subdivisions. The sole of tarsomere II may bear various projections. These may be small pads, long setae or stout spines. In the latter case there may be a double row with the number on the exterior and interior margins varying from each other but constant for a given taxa. In some taxa this number is constant on each pair of legs but may be variable from leg pair to leg pair. The median lobe of tarsomere II varies in length, shape and number, and position of terminal setae from taxon to taxon. The lateral lobes may be strongly convex, bearing spines on their margin, or almost straight. The median claw of the pretarsus may vary in length between taxa. This may be true also of the lateral claws.

The anterior portion of the opisthosoma, the mesosoma, consists of seven segments. Each one is covered dorsally by a sclerotized plate, a **tergite**, which has an anterior transverse raised portion, the **pretergite**. This is often hidden



⁴Two species are now known to lack pedal spurs: *Oeclus purvesi* L. Becker, 1880 (Diplocentridae) and a new troglobite scorpion, *Typhlochaetus rhodesi* Mitchell, 1968 (Chactidae).

by the over-lap of the anterior tergite in a poorly fed scorpion. The tergites become progressively longer from anterior to posterior. The first six frequently have very nearly the same surface features, i.e., similar granules, punctations, keels, etc. These tergites may bear from one to five keels. Tergite VII usually narrows abruptly posteriad so that its posterior width is about equal to that of the first caudal segment (Figs. 1 and 2). The surface features are usually markedly different from the first six. It is generally more coarsely granular and bears at least vestiges of three to five keels. Setae are generally few on all tergites and have little taxonomic value.

Only segments III-VII are completely covered ventrally by sclerotized plates, the sternites (Fig. 2). Segment I has a remnant in the form of two small sclerotized plates, the genital opercula. These are frequently united medially in the female and completely or partially separated in the male. They cover the genital aperture, the gonotreme, and on the male may partially or completely cover two genital papillae. These papillae vary in size on an inter-taxon basis and may be absent on some taxa. The sternite of segment II is represented by a small sclerotized plate, the basal piece (Fig. 2 and 4), which serves as a point of attachment and articulation of the pectens. It has some taxonomic value at the species level and may be helpful in sex determination.

The connective membranes between the genital area and the basal piece are referred to as the **post-genital** fold; that posterior to the basal piece as the **post-basal** fold. In some taxa the basal piece has a hinged accessory sclerotized posterior extension that folds inwardly on poorly fed scorpions. In satiated specimens this secondary portion is at the same level as the main body of the basal piece and gives a deceptive concept of its general configuration.

Sternites III to VI laterally bear a pair of respiratory apertures, the **stigmata** (Fig. 2). These may be circular, elliptical, or slit-like in shape; differences that are usually significant in the higher categories. These sternites seldom are granular, generally only sparsely hirsute and without keels. Sternite VII frequently is granular and may have two pair of lateral keels and a pattern of macrochaetes (Fig. 2).

The tergites and sternites laterally are bound together by the **plural** membranes. In lighter colored taxa these membranes may contain a black pigment which may be of specific significance.

The length of the mesosoma may be measured in two ways. Often this is simply an over-all measurement. As such, the quantity has small value because its magnitude will depend on the condition of nourishment. In an engorged specimen the intersegmental membranes are fully stretched so that the respective terga and sterna are separated from each other by a considerable

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distance. In a starved specimen, each tergite will over-lap the pretergite area of the one posterior to it. The only satisfactory method for determining the mesosoma length is to do so by taking the sum of the individual tergal lengths, measured along the median line and including only the sclerotized area; this will include the pretergite. The "over-all" length may be as much as 40% greater than the "sum total" length.

The pectens, whose tactile function is clearly established, show sexual dimorphism as well as inter-taxon variation. Considerable variation also occurs during maturation within a species in some taxa; especially in the males. Moving from the exterior to the interior margins the pecten consists of the following linearly arranged sclerotized structures (see Figs. 4 B-D and 9): Three marginal lamellae, median lamellae, sub-triangular fulcra and pectinal teeth. The median lamellae vary in shape and number in different taxa. In some cases they are numerous, small, vaulted, circular plates (Fig. 4B); in others they are few in number and of varying shapes (Fig. 4C). In a few taxa they are completely absent.

The fulcra are small subtriangular sclerites positioned between the base of the teeth. Each fulcrum may bear a cluster of macrochaetes, the number of which may have taxonomic value. However, caution must be exercised since the number varies with the age of the specimen.

The teeth vary in shape and number inter- and intra-sexually within the species. Inter-specific variation in shape and number also may be great. Some taxa have only three pectinal teeth while others have over forty. It is of interest to note that a reduction in number of teeth does not assure a sub-sequent reduction in over-all pectinal length. This is especially noticeable on females. Therefore, the ratio of pectinal length to dentate margin length is frequently valuable in determining sex differences as well as a part of the taxon characterization (Fig. 4B). On the ventro-anterior margin of each tooth are found numerous minute, stubby bristles, the sensilla (Fig. 9, 153). The number of these sensory setae is greater on males and shows inter-taxon variation.

Vachon (1952) calls our attention to the taxonomic importance of the dorsal side (nearest to the sternal surface, i.e., the side hidden from view) in some cases. The various sclerotized plates are not as sharply delimited. In some cases the fulcra are small circular, vaulted plates while in others they are pointed or bear either a macro- or microchaete. The teeth, likewise, sometimes bear setae of constant number. These dorsal structures, consequently, have taxonomic usefulness and because of their protected condition, are less likely to be destroyed through normal scorpion activities, handling or preservation.

The metasoma (or cauda) (Fig. 1) consists of five sclerotized rings, progressively increasing in length posteriad, plus the telson. Distinct tergites and sternites are not discernible. The cauda is of great systematic importance and possesses numerous structures providing variability. These consist of surface features, keels, and three-dimensional variations in size. A dorsal furrow, extending throughout the length of the postabdomen, varies in depth due to the degree of carinate development and shows sexual dimorphism.

The first four caudal segments may have the following five pairs of keels: Dorsals, superior laterals (Fig. 1, 21 and 22), median laterals, inferior laterals, and inferior medians. These show different degrees of development and ornamentation on the various segments. Some may be well developed but smooth, or bearing confluent granules, distinct tuberculate, truncated, spinous or serrate granules.

Caudal segment V is always the longest of the five; usually lacks the dorsal keels, the median laterals are often weakly developed and only one inferior median keel is present. This makes seven possible keels, instead of 10 as on segments I-IV. Generally the available keels bear well developed ornamentations which frequently have considerable taxonomic importance. The color and setaceous condition of this segment sometimes varies markedly from I-IV. At the ventro-distal end of segment V is found the anal arch. This often bears an anterior and posterior transverse crest (Fig. 10). The absence, presence and/or shape of the denticles on these crests, as well as the macrochaetes in the intercrestal area, are sometimes of taxonomic interest. Vachon (1952)



Figure 9. Scorpio maurus de Geer ventral surface right pecten. Light area (153) densely covered by sensilla.

Table 1. Scorpion Nomenclature and Mensuration (Part 1)	Equivalents

	Spanish	Definition 1. Tronco 2. Cafalotorax 2. Cafalotorax 3. Conversol 3. Conversol 3. Conversol 3. Conversol 3. Coulse Arectales 3.	 Aimono A. Aimono A. Aim
Equivalents	German	Gernian 1. Truncua 2. Gephalothorax 1. Dorati (kuckan-flache) 2. Stirnioben 2. Stirnioben	d, Mandhul arfingara 45. Mandhul arfingara 46. Unbewglichen 47. Beweglichen 48. Maxilarpaipen (klefern taster, 10. Costentafer 59. Costentafer 50. Trochnyfer
	French	1. Tronc 1. Tronc 2. Cephalothorax 5. Front 6. Front 6. Front 10. Yevs Materaux 10. Yevs medians 11. Tubercule oculaire 12. Stilon 15. Sternus 15. S	44, Main 45, Doigt 46, Fixe 46, Fixe 46, Patresmáchoires 48, Marche 49, Marche 50, Tiochmice
Recommended	Nomenclature	<pre>NOTIFICICIOUE Trunk (cephalothorax + preabdomen Program + messonam) Present (cephalothorax) Program + messonam) Program + messonam) Program + messonam - Contrator posterior divergence 3) Anterior posterior divergence 1) Lateral eyes (ocell1) > Stadiar tuber(central eyes) > Staterior median > Anterior median > Staterior med</pre>	 A Marris (Mand) Flagers Flagers<!--</td-->
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	French	55. Face interne 56. Face laterale	57. Carenes 58. Dorsal interne	59. 60. Pédiculaire	61. Dorsale externe	62 . 63.	64. Ventrale interne	60, Faces	67. Dorsale	68. Ventrale	09. Incerne 70. Externe	71. Carenes	72. Interne dorsale	74. Médian dorsale	75. Laterále dorsale	76. Externe	78. Médiane ventrale	79. Interne ventrale	80. Main (Tibio-tarsus) al Tibio	82. Main	83. Doigt fixe	85. Face externe	86. Carénes	87, Ventral extreme 88 Ventral accessoire	89. Médiane	90. Intermédiaire ai	92. Dorsal accessoire	93. OA Doreal aviale	95.	96.	98. Face interne	99. Carénes	100. Ventral Incerne 101. Médiane	102. Intermediaire	103. Dorsal accessorre 104. Face ventrale	105. Face interne		108. 109.	110.
Recommended	Nomenclature	(3) Interior(4) Exterior	<pre>b) Keels (1) Dorso-interior</pre>	(2) Dorso-median (3) Provinc-marcinal	(4) Dorso-exterior	(5) Exterio-median (6) Ventro-exterior	(7) Ventro-interior	4) Parella (bracmium, ciura) a) Surfares	(1) Dorsal	(2) Ventral	(J) Interior (A) Eventor	b) Keels	(1) Dorso-interior	<pre>(2) Dorsal (3) Dorso-median</pre>	(4) Dorso*exterior	(5) Exterior-median	(7) Ventro-median	(8) Ventro-interior	5) Chela (pincers)	(1) Manus (hand)	(2) Finger (fixed finger)	c) Superior surface	(1) Keels	(a) Exterior marginal (h) secondary accessory	(c) Exterior secondary	(d) Digital	(f) Inner secondary	(g) Subinner secondary	(1) Areas	(a) Inner	d) Inferior surface	(1) Keels	(b) Exterior secondary	(c) Digital	<pre>(d) Inner secondary a) Fxterior surface</pre>	 Cutting edges of fingers (1) Median granules (median 	series)	 (a) One tong tow (b) Series of rows (c) Non-imbricated oblique 	rows (d) Imbricated oblique rows
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Table 1. Scorpion Nomenclature and Mensuration (Part 2)

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Equivalents	German	<pre>111. Aussere Settenkornchen 112. Inner Settenkornchen 112. Uberahlige karnchen 114. Loberahlige karnchen 116. Loberahlige karnchen 118. Loberahlige karnchen 118. Aakillarfortsatz II 119. Maxtilarfortsatz II 119. Maxtilarfortsatz II 120. Exercenter 121. Friebogen 122. Friebigfen 122. Friebigfen 123. Friebigfen 123. Friebigfen 123. Friebigfen 123. Friebigfen 123. Friebigfen 124. Friebigfen 125. Friebigfen 125. Friebigfen 126. Friebigfen 127. Friebigfen 128. Kantlenlappen 129. Opisthenen 129. Opisthenen 120. Generahlie 120. Generahlie 120. Generahlie 120. Generahlie 121. Krallenlappen 122. Erstelige Generen 123. Generahlie 123. Generahlie 124. Opisthenen 125. Generahlie 125. Generahlie 126. Opisthenen 126. Generahlie 127. Generahlie 128. Generahlie 129. Opisthenen 120. Generahlie 120.</pre>
	French	<pre>111. 112. 112. 113. 114. 115. 115. 115. 116. 117. 118. Processus maxiliaires I 118. 118. 118. 118. 118. 118. 118. 118</pre>
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	Spanish	157. 158. Esternitos (111-V11) 159. Estigmas (Espiraculos) 160. Estigmas (Espiraculos) 161. quillas (V11) 162. Metasoma (Cola a postabdomen)	164, Postabomen 165, Segments 1-1V 165, Sternes 1-1V 166, Quillas at superiores 168, Uarerales medias 170, Larerales medias 171, Lareral inferiores 172, Regmento V 173, Larerales superiores 173, Larerales superiores	177, Media inferiores 177, Media inferiore 178, Arco anal 188, Cresta anterior 180, Cresta anterior 181, Arca inferciental 181, Fasaro 183, Fasaro 183, Fasaro 184, Fasaro 184, Astropha 189, Medicula 189, Medicula 189, Medicula 189, Medicula 190, Miseelanea suberficie 191, Facciones superficie	192. Lisa 193. Puntuado 194. Prysteaciones immoviles 195. Gránulos 196. Toterculos 197. Espinas 198. Benticulos 199. Proyectos 200. Sees 200. Nacrosectas 201. Macrosectas 201. Reticulaciones 202. Estimentada 203. Figmentada 203. Provectas 204. Provectas 204. Provectas 205. Contrationes 205. Contrationes 206. Provectas 206. Color
Equivalents	German	137. Bauchenplatten 158. Bauchenplatten 160. Stigmen 161. Kitelen 162. Cauda (Postabdomen)	164, postadomen 165, Nirgen I-LV 166, Orsakrinne 167, Nielen 188, Orsakrikele 199, Oberer Jateralkiele 170, Neberel Jateralkiele 171, Unteren Medialkiele 173, Ringe V Arnalkiele 175, Neberer Jateralkiele	175. Untere Jateralkiele 177. Unteren madialkiele 178. Unteren madialkiele 180. 181. 182. 182. 183. 183. 183. 183. 183. 183. 183. 183	1923. Giart
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Recommended	Nomenclature	d. Post-basal fold e. Sterntes (III.VII) 1) Pre-sternte 2) Stigmata (spiracles) 3) Keals (VII) 3, Pleural membranes 5, Pleural membranes B, Metasame (cauda, real),	<pre>L. Pestadomen a. Segments LIV (XV-XIX) 1) Dorsal furrow 2) Keels a Dorsals b Superior laterals c) Modan laterals c) Modan laterals c) Modan laterals b, Segment V 1) Keels b, Segment V c) Modans</pre>	b) Inferior intervals c) Inferior intervals c) Inferior median a) Anterior treat b) Posterior treat c) Intercreatil area c) Intercreatil area c) Intercential area c) Intercential area c) Therearial area a) Pediancie (pedicle) b: Pedicular Diat c. Sustel (appulia) c.	b Ennette b Functite c Immoules projections () Cranules 3) Spines 3) Spines 4) Morticles b) Microchates b) Microchates
Code	Nos.	157. 158. 159. 160. 161. 163.	166. 165. 165. 166. 170. 172. 173.	176. 1778. 1779. 1779. 1779. 1779. 1880. 1883. 1884. 1884. 1884. 1889. 1890. 1910.	192. 193. 194. 196. 199. 199. 201. 201. 201. 206. 206. 206. 206. 206. 206. 206. 206

classifies the anal arch into three forms: Circular lobed, circular regular and angular. In some taxa, the inferior median keel does not extend to the anal arch. Instead it may fork, or a crescentic arrangement of denticles may be present. This crescent and the enclosed area varies at both the generic and species level in some families.

The intercarinal areas of all segments may bear important surface features, such as, size and density of granules, presence of costate or pigment reticulations and setaceous patterns.

The telson is quite variable in the three dimensions of the vesicle, the surface features and the length, taper, and curvature of the aculeus, as well as the absence or presence of a subaculear tooth or tubercle (Fig. 10).

The length of the cauda is reported in various ways. This may consist of the over-all length of the abdominal segments only or including the telson. This is not a valid measurement because this over-all length is dependent on the degree of relaxation of the intersegmental tissue. The most accurately reproducible and valid method is to take the sum total of the non-telescoping portion of each segment plus the length of the telson. This latter measure-



Figure 10. Generalized telson and distal end of caudal segment V. TL=Telson Length; VL=Vesicle Length. ment is the shortest distance between the "heel" of the vesicle and the tip of the aculeus (Fig. 10). Height and width measurements of the segments consist of the largest distance between margins of the segment proper. Thus the measurements would not extend to the extremities of any large abrupt, protuberances but rather near their base. Measurements of this type obviously cannot be precise.

In the description of taxon surface features the terminology used is often inaccurate and/or too general. An example is the term rugose, which literally means wrinkled. Some authors have used it to mean any rough, coarse surface. Frequently, the surface was costate reticulate or coarsely tuberculate or punctate. Kraepelin occasionally resorted to picturesque terminology which left the novice in a quandry. For example, he describes the middle lamellae of some pectens as resembling a string of pearls (*perlschnurartig*). Precisely he meant a series of vaulted sclerotized circular plates. Expressions of color are misleading. For example, the term melanic. The biochemist tells us that melanins are a series of pigments ranging from brown through black. Thus the term melanic is not adequately precise. Other undesirable color expressions are: ochroid, caledonian brown, flesh, tanbark, geranium, etc.

The nomenclature here introduced for surface features (191-208) are in sufficient use to give them a relatively precise meaning. It is true that in some cases, as in granules and tubercles, we have a matter of subjectiveness. Also, "granule" has a generic connotation including tubercles. However, the general context and adjectives, such as minute, fine, and coarse, provide clarification. There should be no difficulty with the use of granule versus denticle. More care should be exercised in describing the immovable projections on the cutting edges of the pedipalp chela. Here one finds rows of granules or tubercles as well as an accompanying denticulate condition (Figs. 6 and 7). The same situation may be found on the keels of both pedipalp and caudal segments. These may have generic or specific significance.

The only movable projections of great taxonomic value are the trichobothria (Fig. 5). These are found only on the femur, patella and tibia of the pedipalps. Their number and patterns are relatively constant and the distances between them can be measured very precisely. They are valuable even in old, poorly preserved specimens since even though the bristle is lost, the cup-like aroela from which it arises is readily recognized. Macrochaetes, the large non-sensory setae, also leave a somewhat cup-shaped areola but the bristle base completely fills the inner space while that of the trichobothria does not. Also, the lip of the trichobothrial areola is generally whitish.

The trichobothria intact are readily recognized from other setae. The bristle is very long and thin, reacts to the slightest movement of air and is not

readily broken off. The shaft of the ordinary setae is much thicker at the base, generally shorter, stiff and fragile. Only under special circumstances do they have taxonomic value and less so on old, poorly preserved material.

The macrochaetes are heavy bodied, stiff, colored; they arise from a relatively areolar cup which is completely filled by the vase of the bristle. Microchaetes are whitish, small, fine bristles with a base attached to a poorly developed areolar cup.

Reticular patterns are often encountered, either due to pigment, punctations or a costate condition. In some taxa the pigment reticulum of the juvenile forms is gradually replaced by the costate condition as a consequence of maturation. Frequently the costate condition is part of the pattern of sexual dimorphism.

Color is often a deceiving taxonomic trait. The pattern and shade of color may vary with maturation and hybridization. Consequently, its importance should be viewed with caution. However, when color of a taxon or specimen is described, simplicity of expression is most effective. Use of the primary colors in a variable manner is most likely to convey as precise a concept as is necessary. Vachon has set an excellent example in this respect. Color codes, because of the variety of surface conditions and the consequent light reflectivity are not very satisfactory.

The list-outline of nomenclature provided in Table 1, besides improving communication, will serve also as a valuable check-list when describing a new taxon or making a comparative study of several taxa. This will permit the specialist to be more selective in choosing descriptive data and prevent long, redundant descriptions. The quantitative data made possible from the above suggestions can also supply excellent data for population studies and move away more rapidly from the old typological species concept.

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3.0076. Scorpion nomenclature and mensuration. Abstract.-The check-list, illustrations, and descriptions of the anatomy of scorpions make possible accurate measurements, descriptions of taxa, and uniformity of scorpion nomenclature.-Herbert L. Stahnke, Poisonous Animals Research Laboratory, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85281.

Descriptors: Scorpion; Scorpionida; anatomical terminology; mensuration.